

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which has drawn forth general commendation both for its clearness and soundness, estimates the receipts of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1876, at \$297,456,145, and the expenditures at \$268,447,543, leaving a surplus of \$29,008,601. But the so-called Sinking Fund requires \$32,293,692, so that the revenue will actually fall short by \$3,285,091. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1877, however, he expects a surplus of \$34,735,000, which will more than provide for the Sinking Fund. He announces that the funding of the \$500,000,000 of the six per cent. bonds into the "New Fives" has been completed, effecting a saving to the Government in interest of \$5,000,000 annually; and, as \$178,518,300 of this conversion has been effected in sixteen months, while the public credit is steadily improving, he believes that the rest of the six per cent. bonds might be funded at four and a half per cent., but thinks that the term of the four and a half bonds should be made thirty instead of fifteen years. The Secretary does not anticipate any marked revival in business or restoration of confidence until there shall be a "nearer approach to specie payments and a consequent improvement in the character of the currency," and denies that we can take the rank as a business people to which we are entitled by our national advantages as long as we have fluctuating standards of value, and he points out in forcible terms the injury inflicted on both producers and consumers by our inconvertible paper, which prevents our drawing in times of distress on the world's reservoir of real money. He maintains that the legal-tender notes are an evidence of debt which, when issued, were intended to be redeemed or converted into interest-bearing bonds at the earliest practicable moment, the redemption of which in coin has been pronounced by the Supreme Court a Government obligation, and has been solemnly promised by the Congressional declaration of March 18, 1869. He therefore recommends that the legal-tender quality of the notes should be withdrawn as to all contracts made after January 1, 1877; that the Secretary should have power to fund them in a four per cent. bond at the rate, say, of \$2,000,000 a month; and fears that unless some such process of contraction is now entered upon, it will be difficult or impossible to provide the amount of gold necessary for resumption in January, 1879.

What the Report says as to the collection of the revenue is especially interesting. The import duties during the year 1874-5 showed a slight decline, which continued during the present year until October and November, during which months there has been a slight increase. Part of this decrease is due to the dulness of business, of course; part to the enlargement of the free list; but part also to smuggling and undervaluation. The success of smuggling the Secretary ascribes to the immense length of the frontier line, and the smallness of the preventive service, which, along the Canadian line, only supplies one man to every twenty-one miles, and to the height of the duty, which, when greatly out of proportion to the cost of the article, enormously increases the temptation. Undervaluation is due in part to the dishonesty of importers, in part to the fluctuation in values, in part to the defects of the appraisement system itself, and in part to the fraudulent collusion of the appraising officers with the importers. The difficulties of appraisement may be inferred from the fact that the tariff embraces 3,000 articles, either as dutiable or as free, some of which pay according to weight or quantity, and others according to value, and others, again, pay a compound of specific and *ad-valorem* duties. The Secretary recom-

mends the substitution of specific for *ad-valorem* duties, which would almost render fraudulent undervaluation impossible, but he adds "that the only sure remedy for smuggling and collusive or other undervaluation at last lies in the selection and retention of faithful and competent officers. *Neither laws nor regulations, however stringent or minute, will accomplish the desired results without faithful officers to execute them.*" Touching on the whiskey frauds, he recommends a diminution of the enormous temptation offered by a tax amounting to three times the cost of the article taxed, but comes back once more to the old story by declaring that "the highest guarantee for the faithful collection of the revenue is the vigilance and integrity of the officials. This guarantee can be secured only by a careful selection in the first instance, by retaining in office such as have proved their efficiency and honesty, and by prompt dismissal and rigorous prosecution of such as have been found faithless." From which we conclude that he would like to celebrate the Centennial by a reform in the civil service, and is not so much troubled as his chief about "the possibly innocent plural wives" and the imported Chinese women.

It turns out that one of the President's suggestions for increasing the balance in the Treasury contains what the newspaper correspondents have termed "an extraordinary blunder." The President, it will be remembered, says in effect that some legislation is needed to prevent the recovery of fraudulent judgments in the Court of Claims; that large sums have been recovered upon mere affidavits for property appropriated or damaged by the army during the war, more being sometimes allowed to a claimant for his crops than his plantation is worth, as any one may see by riding through the country there. On endeavoring to hunt up these fraudulent judgments, the Washington correspondent of the *Post* speedily found that none in fact existed, for the excellent reasons that the Court of Claims has never had jurisdiction of claims for war damages, and that it never renders judgments on affidavits, but only upon the examination of witnesses, at which the Attorney-General or his legal assistants are always present to cross-examine. The fact (which the President probably did not understand) is that there are several classes of claims disposed of in Washington. The litigated business, being suits against the Government on contract, etc., goes on before the Court of Claims; the war-damage claims are investigated by a Congressional commission, though it does not adjudicate them upon mere affidavits; a third class is disposed of by officers of the Treasury Department, who *do* adjudicate them entirely upon *ex-parte* affidavits. The Attorney-General probably laid a mass of such information before the President, and he condensed it until it took the shape of the very singular misstatement which occurred in his message.

The removal of Mr. Henderson, the special counsel employed to conduct the prosecution in the St. Louis whiskey cases, has been the principal topic of the week in connection with the trans-Mississippi frauds. Mr. Henderson appears to be an able lawyer, and has been very successful thus far in procuring convictions; but in the Avery trial, having to deal with the Babcock telegrams, on which the General has since been indicted, he made observations which exceedingly incensed the President, and which, on submission to the Cabinet, were pronounced inexcusable, and proper cause for Mr. Henderson's dismissal, inasmuch as they insinuated that the President interfered to save the Whiskey Ring from measures taken by Douglas to break it up. Mr. Henderson has accordingly been dismissed, and it is difficult to see how the President could have taken any other course under the circumstances. Those who are finding fault with him are expecting a great deal more than they have a right to expect for fifty thousand dollars a year. There may be men in existence who would put up with what Mr. Henderson said, but

we doubt if they have as yet shown themselves in any civilized government. The proffer of the position to Mr. Glover, a Democratic lawyer, who refused it, and subsequently to Mr. Broadhead, another Democratic lawyer, who has accepted it, both men of eminence in their profession, is a sufficient answer to the insinuation which is freely made that Henderson's removal is due to a desire to abate the vigor of the prosecution in the Babcock case. Mr. Henderson was doubtless better fitted to conduct it than any one else, but his disqualifying himself is the misfortune, not the fault, of the Government. General Grant has often been too touchy, and has more than once seemed to sacrifice the public interest to his personal susceptibilities, but this can hardly be said of him in the present case.

Congress has not got into working order yet, and probably little will be done till after the holidays. There have been two measures introduced looking to early retirement of the greenbacks, and Mr. Blaine has put in his anti-sectarian Constitutional Amendment. Outside of Congress there is plenty of evidence of active preparation for the winter campaign. McMillan, the Louisiana anti-Pinchback claimant, has withdrawn from the contest, and this apparently leaves it open to the Senate to "save the State" by giving Pinchback the seat. The Democratic members of the House have held a caucus, and passed resolutions for the appointment by the chairman (Mr. Lamar) of a Democratic executive committee, to consist of three senators, six representatives, and three citizens of the District of Columbia, and of another committee of eleven members to suggest to the caucus at a future meeting a line of policy on public questions. Among the appointments made during the week are two which seem to show a determination to make use of all the machinery of the Government to keep the present leaders of the Republican party in Louisiana in power. One of these is the nomination for a position in the Custom-house of the president of the Returning Board of last year—the body which made itself responsible for all the turbulence, violence, and lawlessness that marked the organization of the State legislature, by sending in returns concocted in a manner declared by a committee of Congress to be "arbitrary, unfair, and without warrant of law"; and also (to succeed Judge Durell) of Mr. E. C. Billings. Durell, it will be remembered, was the judge who issued a midnight order such as Barnard used to promulgate in this city, empowering Packard, the United States Marshal, to seize the State House, and he resigned to save himself from impeachment. The *Tribune* remarks that the evidence taken shows that Billings was one of the lawyers whom Durell consulted on the occasion of the issue of this order, and "seems to have given advice about the form of the order, if he did no more." Billings is also said to be the friend of Norton, Durell's habitual "assignee" in bankruptcy. The *Tribune* says this is like "impeaching Cardozo to make room for Gratz Nathan"—a comparison which shows how far malice may carry a licentious and venal press.

The third-term discussion has been revived during the past two or three weeks in several curious ways. The *New York Times* has published an editorial admitting the possible danger to the party of a renomination in certain contingencies; the *Chicago Tribune* has published another, in which it has, with unusual brilliancy, suggested that General Grant might retire next year and be renominated four years later; while the climax has been capped by Bishop Haven, at a meeting of Methodist preachers in Boston, boldly recommending prayer for the renomination of the President, on account of the condition of the South. On its face, this movement appeared to have a good deal of meaning, particularly as General Grant listens to a Methodist minister in Washington, and for the additional reason that in his letter of a few months since, declining a renomination, he admitted that if it became an "imperative duty" he might be forced to stand again; and he has in his message declared the country to be in imminent need of salvation and in danger of bloodshed—a state of affairs which might fairly make him

think it an "imperative duty" to remain at the head of the Government. It is only fair, however, to say that Bishop Haven is a highly erratic character, and that, according to the *Methodist*, his elevation to the dignity of Bishop has not prevented his remaining known as "Gil" Haven—a circumstance which may help a man in politics, but does not of itself prove authority in the Church.

A letter written by John Y. Foster, editor of the *Newark Courier*, to Mr. Blaine, and not intended for the public eye, has nevertheless got into print, to the consternation of the writer. The letter first made its appearance in a Democratic newspaper, having presumably been stolen from the mails or from Mr. Foster's office-boy. In it the writer says that he told Mr. Blaine eighteen months ago that he "could have New Jersey in 1876," and that he (Mr. Foster) wished now to "emphasize this statement"; he suggests a union of New England, the Middle States, and "strong votes from the South"; declares that a "potent faction" in the next convention will be the "secret anti-Catholic order"; adds that "Grant is a member," that it "has a good deal of strength in Congress," and that Mr. Blaine "ought to go in." "Grant," he says, "no doubt relies upon it to promote his aims," and, in his (Foster's) opinion, "the order is spreading widely." Mr. Foster has written another letter explaining the first, however, in which he says the order he referred to is that of the "United American Mechanics," which, "while rigidly excluding partisan politics from its councils," has as its cardinal principles "hostility to all sectarian interference in political affairs"; and that he has been told and believes "that this order, stimulated by the insolent attempts of the Romanists in New Jersey, Ohio, and elsewhere to convert our public reformatories, established and maintained by the public moneys, into sectarian institutions, with altars, confessionals, and masses, has within the last year or two grown rapidly in membership, and is still growing in numbers and influence"; that he thinks it no shame for any man to belong to it; but that he does think it wrong for Democrats, or anybody else, to steal letters, and that the Democratic editor who published the letter "has shown himself to have a lower sense of honor than the thieves that infest the slums of New York."

Mr. Henry Clews has written a singular letter to the morning papers, explaining his contract with Cheever and "James Van Buren" for a division of the profits of the Government Financial Agency in Europe. He says Cheever's claim against his estate is "fraudulent" and "bogus," and this is how it happened: Mr. Clews was at Washington in 1869 at a hotel, and in came Mr. Cheever, whom he had known and supposed to be a "retired merchant," and who said that he was living in Washington and was "associated with Mr. James Van Buren, from the West, a gentleman of powerful influence," and that he had agreements with several New York bankers under which he transmitted information to them, and, if they made anything by it, divided the profits with them, and Mr. Clews thereupon entered into a similar agreement with him at once. Cheever then announced that he and "Mr. Van Buren" and "large capitalists" were going to establish a bank in Washington, and asked Clews to keep their accounts and share any profits made through their agency, and again Clews closed with him. He also "suggested getting, in connection with the Clews firm, the Government Financial Agency in all the principal cities, and proposed to undertake it at once." Whether he accepted this last proposition or not Mr. Clews refrains from saying, but he denies that anything was done under it, and declares that the bank scheme also failed, and denies that the President or any member of his Administration had any interest, directly or indirectly, in the Government Financial Agency. What is remarkable in this is the extreme readiness with which Mr. Clews entered into business relations with a person he knew nothing about, and his confidence in "Mr. Van Buren, from the West, a gentleman of powerful influence," whom he had never seen or heard of before. The whole letter is one which makes one long to ask Mr. Clews questions, and

we trust Congress will see that he is questioned so as to make the whole thing clearer to his friends, and will try to secure "Mr. James Van Buren's" attendance. We regret to perceive that Mr. Clews does not deny the authenticity of the contract produced before the Registrar in Bankruptcy. He simply says that nothing was earned under it, and pronounces Cheever an untrustworthy person. Cheever has, however, appeared with a counter letter, making a conflict of veracity with Clews, and threatening him with "papers" and exposure in various matters.

As might be expected at this season of the year, dulness has been the feature in trade and in the Wall-Street markets. The latter were little influenced by the recommendations to Congress respecting the currency. It is not yet known what Congress may do, although the impression is general that there will be no radical changes. The political advantages to be gained by legislation which will make it certain that the Treasury will pay specie January 1, 1879, are not less than would be the advantages to every department of trade, and there is, therefore, reason for thinking that Congress will legislate to this end rather than away from it. But this is not yet sufficiently clear to be accepted as the groundwork for calculations either by merchants or Wall-Street brokers. While gold has ranged within narrow limits (114 and 114½), foreign exchange has been strong, the best bankers' bills rising to 4.85½ for 60-day, and 4.89½ for demand drafts. There has been no change in the London money market, although there has been an important movement in gold from London to the Continent, particularly to Paris. The Bank of England has a large gold reserve, and evidently expects to get gold from here, possibly before the close of the year, and certainly early in the new year. This expectation is reasonable, considering the strength of the foreign exchanges here before the demand to cover January interest collections on European account has set in. Money here has been in better demand, rates advancing to 6 and 7 per cent. The New York banks are still sending currency to the South; the demand from the West has slackened, and currency has been coming in from the Middle States. Early in January, the return-flow from the West begins, and, two to three months later, that from the South. A disposition must be shown by the present Congress to enforce specie payments by the Treasury in 1879 before there will be a full employment of idle money. Capitalists are sheltering their money as they have been doing since the panic, but so soon as they are assured that they can at least get back as good as they lend, new enterprises will be encouraged, and the loan market will be healthfully quickened. The value of \$100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between \$87 33 and \$87 71.

The annual returns made by the Eastern Railroad Company to the Massachusetts Board of Railroad Commissioners have revealed a state of affairs in the finances of that corporation which, though not wholly unexpected, differs so widely from the returns of previous years, and from statements published in the interest of the railroad in the early part of the current year, as to afford a new and very striking example of the extent to which a corporation may become involved while its credit is still unsuspected by the public. The returns show that the debt of the company now amounts to \$14,833,500, while the amount paid for interest during the year has been \$892,362; the debt having been increased by \$2,508,247, or 20 per cent., above the amount reported a year ago, and the interest paid having been increased by \$139,031. Moreover, so much of the debt has been incurred within the year that the large interest-charge of the past year is evidently less than would have to be provided for in the coming year. On the other hand, the gross receipts have decreased from \$2,971,815 in 1873-74 to \$2,827,291 in 1874-75, a decrease of 5 per cent., and the net earnings for the year are returned as only \$757,419; of this amount \$200,916 has been absorbed by rentals, leaving only \$556,503 to pay the interest of the year, or less than 63 per cent. of the amount which has been paid, and only 3¼ per cent. on the total indebtedness.

Genuine sensation has been caused in Germany by the publication of an anonymous pamphlet, under the title of 'Pro Nihilo,' the author being evidently Count Arnim, who was already dead in public opinion, and has now managed to kill himself over again. The best policy for the Government, so far as the effect on public opinion is concerned, would have been to give the pamphlet the widest possible circulation; instead of that, it has been everywhere confiscated. If there still remained a doubt that Count Arnim is a person absolutely unfit to be trusted with any office of responsibility, this pamphlet has removed it. If papers addressed by the highest public official to a diplomatic agent in his quality as ambassador may be appropriated by the latter and communicated to the whole world as documents relating to a "private conflict," then the foreign offices might as well henceforth transact their whole business by public criers on the market. The most important document is a letter from Bismarck to Count Arnim, dated June 19, 1873, in which Bismarck commences by stating that the Count, in a report of June 8, addressed directly to the Emperor, concedes "that the best government in France for us would always be one which has to devote the greatest part of its strength to overcoming its inner enemies." "Your Excellency has for eight months maintained the opposite view, and succeeded in making it prevail with his Majesty." Thereby the overthrow of M. Thiers has been, "if not directly brought about, at least facilitated, by paralyzing my efforts to maintain" him. The oft-repeated assertion of the Count that the continuance of M. Thiers at the head of the French Government "must become dangerous to the monarchical principle in Europe," has made an impression on the Emperor. "The influence exercised by your Excellency here has not allowed me to give you the positive order to throw the whole weight of our policy into the balance for the maintenance of M. Thiers." "I find myself in a position to take upon myself the responsibility for this political blunder [of not having supported M. Thiers with all possible energy] and the situation produced by it, although I cannot feel obliged to do so after the efforts I have unceasingly made in the opposite direction." The influence exercised by the Count on the Emperor has "no longer an ambassadorial, but a ministerial, character." "My strength is too much exhausted, . . . besides attending to my regular duties in the Cabinet of his Majesty, to carry on a contest with an ambassador opposing my policy." The Chancellor will propose to the Emperor to take the steps "necessary to maintain unity and discipline in the foreign service, and to secure the interests of his Majesty and of the Empire against unconstitutional injury."

The French Assembly has been absorbed during the week in the election of the seventy-five senators whom it has the right of choosing under the new constitution. At this writing, forty-two have been elected, of whom thirty are Republicans of one shade or another, and the others are Legitimists or Conservatives, who came in as the result of a compromise. The Republican success is the result of the greater unity of the Left than of the other sections, which are greatly broken up by personal jealousies, a large number of their members being gentlemen who have never been in political life before, and see no chance of getting into it again unless sent up to the Senate by the Assembly. The Left and Left Centre are very free from these influences, and are thus able to act with unusual concert. Several of the leading military men are chosen, but Messrs. Buffet, De Meaux, and Wallon of the Ministry have been defeated, and have withdrawn from competition. These senators sit for life, and an election of anybody "for life" in France now excites more or less merriment, there being so many men, both public and private, who have survived offices which they fondly hoped to fill until death. But it is impossible not to feel that the new senators have a better chance than any of their predecessors of serving out their term, because they are the first officers of their kind who have been put in their places by a rational process, and after full discussion.

GENERAL GRANT AS A LEGISLATOR.

THE President is empowered or directed by the Constitution to recommend "to the consideration of Congress such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient," and General Grant is certainly using his authority freely and with remarkable confidence. He recommends in his last message an amendment to the Constitution making the maintenance of free public schools incumbent on each State, and forbidding the teaching in these schools of "religious, atheistic, or pagan tenets," or the granting of State aid to any religious sect or denomination; and advises the taxation of church property, and the exclusion from the franchise, after the year 1890, of all persons who cannot read or write, the suppression of polygamy and of the importation of women for illegitimate purposes, and the repeal of the Legal-Tender Act as regards contracts to be fulfilled after January 1, 1877. These are all subjects of the first rank in importance, about which there is a great deal to be said on both sides, and any one of which, it is safe to say, would of itself afford both Congress and the country food for as much reflection as they are equal to; but the President has so thoroughly made up his mind about them that he recommends the settlement of the whole of them next year as a sort of celebration of the Centennial. It is worth notice, too, that none of them except the last are what may be called pressing questions, and he takes them up and disposes of them somewhat in the manner of an inquisitive traveller, who, in passing through a country and noticing what he considers an abuse, says, "This is all wrong, and ought not to be allowed," without troubling his head about difficulties or details.

The truth is that in dealing with most of the problems of civil government the President is literally a traveller in a strange land, and no one has filled his chair with so little previous preparation for the place through education or social experience. He is, indeed, it may be said, the only man who has taken his seat in it without having a stock of settled opinions on the leading points of American politics, and he finds it now, at his time of life, impossible to get up a steady and persistent interest in any of them. New things strike him, therefore, nearly every year, and his mind works on them with a certain feverish or youthful activity and then turns to something else. The views he forms on them, too, though often marked by a strong common-sense, are, in the literal sense of the word, crude—that is, have evidently been formed without prolonged reflection or mature consideration of difficulties; they are, in short, the kind of views that a man forms over a cigar after dinner, and are apt to be pervaded by the same healthy morality; for when men are not cynical after dinner, they are apt to be exceedingly hostile to vice in all forms. For example, the President, in his inaugural address, propounded the plan of paying the national debt with the product of the Western gold and silver mines, which is exactly an after-dinner idea likely to take hold of a man in an indolent mood, when unwilling to ask himself why it should be easier for the Government to pay its debts with the mines of private citizens than with their potato-fields. He took up the reform of the civil service, too, evidently without having any clear idea of what he meant by it, and abandoned it as soon as he really came into contact with Mr. Curtis's rules and saw how they were going to work. The civil-service problem is still the most important problem of our politics. It includes nearly every other problem. Almost every abuse which now occupies the public mind may be traced back to it by one channel or another—the whiskey frauds, the Indian frauds, the pension frauds, the Schenck scandal. Examine any one of them thoroughly, and you will find that it originated either in the appointment of men who ought not to have been appointed or the retention of men who ought to have been dismissed. And yet of civil-service reform the President in this last message—to which he expressly gives a valedictory character, and in which he displays great solicitude about the future of the Republic—says not one word. Two years ago his mind was supposed to be full of it; now he thinks no more about it. He dreads the teaching of

"religious, atheistic, or sectarian tenets" in the public schools, and is troubled about the taxation of church property, Mormon polygamy, and Chinese prostitution; but the conversion of the eighty thousand officers of the Government into electioneering agents apparently gives him no concern whatever. The reason is that the subject has passed from his mind, as San Domingo has, and he is occupied with something new; and his views on the new thing are just as superficial and as lightly held as his views on the old one, and will probably last no longer.

In saying this, we cast no imputation on his sincerity. We have no doubt that his mind is just now troubled about the schools, and the churches, and the Mormon and Chinese women, and that his recommendations about them are honestly made. But it would be a great pity if any respect for his sincerity and for his position enabled him to provide the American people at this juncture either with topics of political discussion or with issues for party contests. It has to be borne in mind that, in selecting General Grant for the Presidency in 1867, nobody thought of him for a moment as a legislator, although his reputation in that field undoubtedly stood higher than it does now. He was chosen because Mr. Johnson's aberrations had led people to fear some violent attempt to upset or neutralize the results of the war and to look for a long period of turbulence and disorder at the South, and was supported the more heartily by many—ourselves among the number—because they supposed that his military training, and the sagacity he had shown in the selection of his military subordinates, would qualify him to deal energetically and efficiently with what it was plain would prove after the war the crying evil of the day—the condition of the hastily organized administrative service. His complete failure as a civil-service reformer, however, involving, as it has done, also his failure as a pacificator of the South, is now known to everybody. The South has settled down at last into something like peace and quiet, owing to the very excesses of the rascals whom the Administration put in charge of it. They behaved with such reckless audacity that they ran their course and opened the eyes of the Northern public in less than five years; but they had a firm and tenacious supporter in the President down to the very last. His latest message on Southern matters was an incoherent proposal that Congress should overturn the State Government in Arkansas in order to give the Carpet-bag Ring another chance of ascendancy and plunder. Of the condition of the civil service the revelations at St. Louis, Chicago, and Milwaukee are a sufficient illustration. In fact, there can scarcely be said to have been any improvement in this field during the last six years. The present pursuit of the St. Louis offenders is so thoroughly Turkish in its character that rejoicing over it would be absurd, particularly since the indictment of General Babcock. "Let no guilty man escape" is a good enough motto for Bajazet or Mahmoud, but what civilized rulers should say is, "So organize and appoint and test that the chance of guilty men getting into office shall be small." To slaughter the Janissaries or Mamelukes was perhaps a good thing, but it would be better never to have any Janissaries or Mamelukes.

In making suggestions, therefore, for legislation, except as to the immediate exigencies of the Government, the President, though perhaps discharging a constitutional duty to the best of his ability, is doing something for which he is hardly qualified, and which nobody when he was elected looked for at his hands, and for which nothing in his official career has revealed any fitness or capacity. There is, of course, little reason to suppose that any of his suggestions will be embodied in laws, however worthy of attention some of them may some time become, but they may just now prove mischievous in distracting public attention from the burning questions of the day. The country is in no such danger, either from the "possibly innocent plural wives" of the Mormons or from the Chinese harlots, or from the accumulation of untaxed property in the hands of the Church, or from the assaults of the priests on the public schools, as it is from the McDonalds, and Joyces, and Shepherds, and Caseys. It is they who are the real polygamists, and priests, and demagogues, and harlots of our time. It is they who threaten

school and church and home with desecration or destruction. They are the real sappers of the foundations of liberty. It is they and their kind who, "ever since the fall of Adam for his transgression," have been the worst enemies of popular government, the forerunners of tyranny and degradation. They are the real foes of the public schools. Their taxed property is a greater injury to the state than all the untaxed ecclesiastical property in the civilized world. The loss of faith in justice, in law, in individual honesty, in man's capacity for self-government, which is caused by their operations, is the great political danger of our time, to which the people ought to give their attention. Laws are but words on paper until they come to be executed; justice is but a name unless the law stands behind it; and whether the laws are executed or justice finds support in law, depends on the character and capacity of the men who fill the civil service of the Government. No nation ever yet perished, or even suffered seriously, because the legislation was defective. In civilized countries, as a general rule, the constitution or the acts of the legislature on the whole make for security and tranquillity; the decay, when it sets in, results from the inability of the government to get fidelity and obedience from its servants. In Turkey, to-day, the people would be happy and prosperous if the Sultan's edicts were carried out. It is because the civil service is filled with knaves and speculators and ignoramuses who pay little heed to his edicts that the Empire is going to pieces. Some of the signs of the times among ourselves bear a comic resemblance to those of the great historic declines. What, for instance, could be more striking and instructive than the handing over of the Indian service in despair by the President to the missionary societies? Does it not look absurdly like the rise of the bishops into the position of civil rulers when the Roman administration went to pieces under the blows of the barbarians? And is not such a confession of helplessness on the part of the state enough to set men thinking as well as laughing?

THE ALARM ABOUT THE SCHOOLS.

THE apathy with which the public has received the signs of alarm exhibited by the President and some politicians about the public schools, shows pretty clearly that we are not likely to have any general agitation on the subject at present. No such agitation could be stirred up by any man's opinions or apprehensions. It will come, whenever it comes, from attacks on the common-school system by a body of voters sufficiently large to make people fear that they may eventually succeed, and no such attacks have as yet been made, nor are they likely to be made for a good while, if ever. Mr. Blaine's proposal, therefore, that the danger should be averted now by an amendment to the Federal Constitution, forbidding the States as well as the United States to establish a church or devote taxes to the support of sectarian institutions, will probably not receive the attention it merits. It would no doubt put a stop to a process which we shall probably witness hereafter with increasing frequency in all the States, and particularly the States which have a large city population—the process of making covert appropriations of public money, or granting privileges which are the equivalent of money, under one disguise or another, to Catholic societies, schools, and charities. We say Catholic, because the Catholic Church controls the largest number of voters who are willing to vote in ecclesiastical interests, and who can, therefore, be used most effectively in support of ecclesiastical bargains or enterprises. These appropriations are never very large, because the Church is prudent and bides her time. She has a sense of permanency such as belongs to no Protestant denomination, and is, therefore, always able and willing to take pay in instalments, and feels that some day or other she will have the sum she needs. This mode of accumulation, too, is helped in a remarkable degree by the secrecy of her financial management. The laity are drawn on incessantly for all sorts of objects, but they never know what is done with the money. No disagreeable public discussions, therefore, ever occur over the accounts. If mistakes are made, they are not heard of outside the episcopal parlor, nor is there ever any loud public proclamation of wants.

The Church works without haste, but without rest, and noiselessly, and is served by a permanent, powerful, and thoroughly-disciplined corporation. The reason why she makes so many little assaults on the treasury of this city and State is, that while she has here, as elsewhere in the Union, a sense of wrong in being forced to contribute to the support of schools she does not approve of or use, she knows she is strong enough numerically here to be worth courting in politics, and easily persuades herself that in getting little appropriations of one kind and another she is only getting back a portion of her own. If there were, therefore, a constitutional prohibition of such appropriations, it might stop a leak which bids fair to increase in size. But, after all, it is only a leak. It is only by a great stretch of imagination that we can really fancy its protecting us against a church establishment or a real division of the school funds among sects, and it would be very difficult to discover any real alarm on the subject in any part of the country. Alarm about it would doubtless be a convenience to a great many people. There is a large number of gentlemen in politics who would like amazingly to see the public mind absorbed in resisting the insidious encroachments of the Papacy, instead of concentrating itself on accounts, and vouchers, and "outrages," and telegrams, and reports—subjects which doubtless have a certain meanness and narrowness about them, but which happen at this moment to be to the American citizen the most important of all subjects. The Pope will keep. He is tough and tenacious, and can be laid low just as well twenty-five years hence as now, while the "Bosses" are daily disappearing with the money, and, once gone away, never return.

It ought to be said in all honesty, however, that those who think the public schools are not all they ought to be have a good deal to say for themselves. The Catholic clergy, who clamor for religious instruction as a necessary part of education, belong to a school which includes a good many Protestants, and which does not believe in the policy of leaving the character to be moulded by circumstances after the arts of reading and writing have been supplied. In fact, the discussion which is now raging over the school question, both here and in England, is almost as much between the friends of little and those of much training, as between those of secular, and those of religious teaching. The former do not want the state to take any responsibility about the child's moral culture, and the latter want it to take a great deal, and they know no way of securing moral culture except by the systematic teaching of religious beliefs. But it is easy to see why these should have a much harder task here than anywhere else. There is probably no country in the world in which there is at this moment less faith in the possibility or expediency of influencing character in youth by purely didactic methods than in this. The whole tone of society and the spirit of our institutions are against it. Hardly anything is believed among us, by either young or old, because somebody has said it. There are probably fewer people among us than anywhere else in the world whose theory of life is not the result of their own experience, or who are under many obligations to authority for the solution of moral problems. Indeed, the overthrow of authority has been so complete that it has worked the ruin of doctrinal preaching in the pulpits. Doctrinal preaching is necessarily authoritative. It consists in the dicta of commentators, but few persons are found willing to listen to dicta. The result is that the ministers are drawn more and more into a sort of co-operative speculation, in which the congregation can take part, and in which the nearest approach to instruction consists in the suggestion of probabilities and the drawing of analogies. There are, too, in all classes, and even in the churches, differences of opinion as to the sanctions and origin of moral rules, and as to the precise connection of morals with religion, which, however slight, would prevent any united action even in any one denomination as to the kind of moral instruction which should be given in the schools by the state. The feeling that "they didn't know everything down in Judee" is far wider and deeper than the people who are fretting themselves about the safety of the schools imagine it is. It is concealed by denominational statistics,

but only faintly concealed. The denominations which make fewest demands on members for definitions of their beliefs are growing more rapidly than any others, and those which a few years ago were most exacting on this point are silently relaxing their discipline. In fact, there is an enormous and growing amount of vagueness of belief about all the higher problems of existence concealed under both church-going and church-membership.

It would be a great mistake, too, to suppose that the Catholic Church is exempt from these influences. There is, as her history has shown, no power either in her creed or her discipline to save her from the action of the various modifying agencies of modern civilization. She may not have changed her doctrines or machinery, but her members have changed, so that she has no longer the same hold on the world. A man's going to mass and confession does not mean now what it meant even fifty years ago. No government in our day is afraid to encounter her. Bishops go to prison in Prussia without exciting much more attention than if they were defaulting clerks, and the Pope's curses in Rome die on the empty air. Catholic laymen, too, after they get above the peasant class, know well that a man is somehow in our time not so well equipped for the fierce and bitter struggle of modern society by a clerical education as by a secular one, and shrink more and more from encountering the scientific school burdened with clerical solutions of physical and moral problems. Nobody is thoroughly easy with a creed which keeps him constantly on the defensive in the society of other educated men, and Catholics are very apt in our time to find themselves in that position. So that, altogether, it is hard to see any reason for believing the school question serious, though there is no doubt it may here and there prove troublesome.

A GENERAL REGULATION ACT.

WE observe that the Democrats in Congress have, as a measure of precaution, formed a committee to which they mean to refer all bills and resolutions emanating from their side of the House before producing them publicly. The following bill, which has been sent to us for publication, seems to us eminently worthy the consideration of this committee. We do not approve of all its features, and think it carelessly drawn in many places, but it covers more ground and contains more of the results of "advanced thinking" than any piece of legislation with which we are acquainted. We ask for it a respectful perusal, and trust it will not be made the subject of unseemly mirth. Nothing seems to us more disheartening and alarming than the tendency to joecose and flippant treatment of plans for the elevation of the masses which a portion of the press and many politicians are in the habit of exhibiting.

BE it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That specie payments are hereby resumed. The Secretary of the Treasury shall cause to be printed a placard bearing an announcement of the fact, and shall post the same conspicuously upon all the outer doors of the Treasury building.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted,* That in order to remove all cause of controversy as to the meaning of the term specie payments as used in this act, it is declared that the true intent and meaning of the same is the right to discharge, in lawful money or legal-tender notes of the United States, any debt or pay any tax to the Government, which is by existing law to be paid in gold coin. And the resumption of specie payments effected by this act shall not confer upon any holder of United States notes the right to call for the redemption of the same, nor upon any creditor of the United States the right to demand coin in satisfaction of any claim which is by existing law to be paid in lawful money.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary of the Treasury is charged with the duty of making the volume of the currency equal to the demands of trade, which shall be done without undue expansion of the currency and without any contraction whatever.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary of the Treasury shall issue lawful money of the United States, secured by a pledge of all the wealth of the nation, to all persons who may wish to borrow the same, taking as security for the same mortgages of real estate if the applicant is the possessor of such property, and if not, then of such personal property as

the borrower owns. But there shall be no discrimination in favor of or against any person in consequence of his wealth or poverty, and all persons shall be put upon an equal footing as borrowers.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary of the Treasury shall prepare bonds of the United States, bearing interest at the rate of 3.65 per cent. per annum, payable principal and interest in lawful money, which bonds he shall issue at par, receiving therefor lawful money of the United States, and shall redeem the same on demand. All sums received for bonds shall be immediately employed in the purchase of bonds of the United States bearing interest in coin at the market rate (provided the same shall not be presented for redemption under the provisions of Section 6 of this Act), and when a demand for the redemption of such 3.65 bonds shall be made, the obligation shall be met by a new issue of legal-tender notes.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That three months after the passage of this act interest shall cease on all the bonds of the United States on which the interest is to be paid in coin, and the same shall be called in for redemption in lawful money; provided, however, that no bond presented after the lapse of one year from the date of such call shall be redeemed either in coin or in lawful money.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That all laws or parts of laws impairing or denying the right of any person to make and issue notes as money, or to coin any metal, are hereby repealed. It shall be lawful for all persons to make and issue money of such material and in such form as may to them seem expedient, and all money so issued shall be a legal tender for the payment of all debts, public and private, to and from the Government and between individuals; and no discrimination shall be made by any person in favor of or against any particular kind of money. But it shall in no case be lawful to export any of this national currency to points outside the United States of America.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted,* That since by the provisions of this act it is placed within the power of all persons dwelling within the United States to acquire wealth without dishonesty, and since thereby the temptation to commit crimes against property has been removed, all such crimes are hereby abolished, and all laws of the United States or of any State affixing penalties to the offences heretofore known as theft, larceny, forgery, embezzlement, and similar acts, are rescinded and repealed.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted,* That all railroads built, or to be built, within the United States, are hereby declared to be public highways. All persons shall have equal rights upon the same with the owners thereof, and no railroad company shall pay to its stockholders dividends amounting to more than three and sixty-five hundredths per cent. in any one year, under penalty of forfeiting its charter.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted,* That the uniform rate for transporting passengers on any railroad in the United States shall be one cent for each mile travelled; and any company charging or collecting more shall forfeit its charter to the person or persons who shall prove to the satisfaction of any court that the provisions of this section have been violated.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted,* That no company shall make any discrimination in favor of or against any point or place on its line, in any manner whatsoever. In the transaction of passenger business all trains shall run to and stop at all stations to take or leave passengers; and any person requesting to be transported from one station to another shall be carried at such time as will best suit his convenience. Each company shall so arrange its tariff for the transportation of merchandise that no person shall be placed at a disadvantage by reason of his residing at a point more remote from his chosen market than others who have for sale articles similar to those which he offers; and no charge for the transportation of freight shall exceed the rate of one half cent for each ton of freight carried one mile.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted,* That whenever a memorial signed by ten citizens of the United States, setting forth that in their opinion a railroad is needed between any two points, and that for reasons stated private capital cannot be induced to engage in the enterprise, shall be presented to the Secretary of the Interior, he shall issue a charter for such railroad, and shall certify to the Secretary of the Treasury the fact of such charter. And the Secretary of the Treasury shall, on receiving an affidavit that the company has been duly organized, issue to such company bonds of the United States to the amount of fifty thousand dollars for each mile of the projected road, to be applied to the construction of the same, unless the directors shall determine otherwise.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted,* That the Government of the United States assumes control of all the telegraph lines in the United States, and will purchase all existing lines at a valuation to be fixed in each case by three disinterested directors of the company whose line is taken. And all messages shall hereafter be sent at a uniform rate of one cent a word with-

out regard to distance: *provided, however*, that no charge shall be made on any message sent to or from any member of the Senate or House of Representatives.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That on the petition of five residents of any city or town in the United States not enjoying telegraphic facilities, a line shall be extended to such city or town at the public expense.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the monopoly known as the Associated Press is hereby abolished.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That in order to enable the manufacturers of the United States to compete successfully with the cheap labor of Europe, the importation from foreign countries of all articles in a manufactured state, articles similar to which are produced in the United States, is absolutely prohibited and forbidden.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That all laws imposing a tariff or duty on the importation of foreign goods are hereby repealed.

SEC. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts imposing taxes upon domestic productions and upon dealers in the same, and requiring stamps upon any instruments, constituting the system of taxation known as internal revenue, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the right of suffrage is hereby extended to women and children. Votes may be cast for infants in arms by their mothers, *provided* that such infants shall give their personal attendance at the polls.

SEC. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That while we welcome to our shores the people of every nation, the immigration of persons of the Mongolian race is prohibited, and it is declared to be the duty of the Government to protect Caucasian and African labor from losing, through the advent of a swarm of Asiatics, the compensation to which it is entitled.

SEC. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That, inasmuch as there is no desire on the part of anybody to create a religious establishment for any State or for the United States, the Constitution is hereby amended by adding thereto a clause to prevent this imminent danger.

SEC. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That while the right to tax real estate or to refrain from taxing the same is wholly within the control of each State, advice is hereby given to the States that they would do well to tax church property.

SEC. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be no sectarian religious teaching in any school established by any State.

SEC. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That in all public and private schools in the United States such studies shall be pursued and such text-books used as the pupils in each school may direct. No pupil shall be compelled to learn morality from any book to which he, or his parent or guardian, or the spiritual adviser of his parent or guardian or of himself, offers objection. Teachers are prohibited from inflicting corporal or other punishment upon pupils; and they shall enforce no rule in the government of their schools until the same shall have been approved by a unanimous vote of their pupils.

SEC. 25. *And be it further enacted*, That in all courts of law in the United States, all presumptions shall continue to be, as they now are, in favor of persons accused of crime. All motions by the counsel for prisoners made with the intention of delaying trials, shall be granted. The justices of the courts of the several States and of the United States are directed to prepare (with the assistance of lawyers trained in the preparation of technical points designed to effect the release of criminals) new rules of evidence, which shall the more effectually prevent witnesses from telling all they may know of the matter under trial, in case such evidence would lead to the doing of substantial justice.

SEC. 26. *And be it further enacted*, That in case any part of this act shall be pronounced unconstitutional in any court of any State or of the United States, the President is hereby empowered to add to the number of justices from time to time, and to appoint so many as may be necessary to procure a reversal of all decisions adverse to the validity of this act.

SEC. 27. *And be it further enacted*, That all causes that seem to delay the coming of the millennium are hereby removed; all laws that impose any restraints of any kind upon the liberty of any citizen are rescinded; all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed; and this act shall take effect immediately.

THE CENTENNIAL.

PHILADELPHIA, December 8, 1875.

THE managers of the Centennial have made, or are about to make, a demand upon Congress for an appropriation. As the times are anything but favorable for such calls upon the national purse, the readers of the

Nation will be interested in learning the present condition of the enterprise, its prospects, and the motives which lead the managers to take the present step. Last Friday I made a thorough inspection of the grounds and buildings. Fortune favored me with the last pleasant day of the season, and I had the additional advantage of securing the kind offices of Gen. Norton, who served as guide with unwearied patience for many hours. Although aware, through previous experience at Vienna, that great things can be accomplished by well-directed energy, I was not prepared for the truly wonderful changes that have been wrought at Philadelphia within a twelvemonth. It would be but a slight exaggeration to say that the Exhibition buildings are ready now, months ahead of the time. Certain it is that they will be in readiness to receive goods early in February. Let me take up the several buildings in order.

The Machinery Hall is finished, and has been formally handed over by the contractor to the general direction. Workmen are now laying the foundations for the huge Corliss engine in the centre that is to supply the motive-power to the shafting. The tanks and reservoirs for the department of hydraulics—by the bye, omitted at Vienna—are either finished or well under way. Several of the supply-boilers are on the ground. The flooring is laid, except in places reserved for the foundations of heavy machinery. A surveyor is now engaged in marking out on the floor the spaces for different exhibits. The view from the upper gallery at the end of the hall is even now impressive. One can take in at a glance its magnitude and handsome proportions, and above all its adaptation to the purposes for which it is built. It is beyond question the finest machinery hall yet erected, and when filled and in operation will surpass London, Paris, and Vienna. The light is excellent, and the general appearance is that of neatness. It is in every respect a marked contrast to the ungainly, untidy structure in the Prater, and is worthy of the nation whose industry it is intended to display.

The Main Building is not so far forward, but the work that remains is inconsiderable in amount and of an easy kind. The building, as building, is completed, but the flooring is still to be laid in great part, and the decorative painting of the interior is not yet begun. It will be pushed vigorously as soon as the committee have decided upon the pattern and color. Several columns and panels have been ornamented as samples of the various styles from which the selection is to be made. Six or eight weeks of quiet, regular work will probably suffice for the completion. There is no danger of interruption from the weather, as the outer walls and roofing are finished.

The Memorial Hall, or art building, is about as far advanced as the main building—i. e., the outer walls and roofing are done, with the exception of the cupola, where the workmen are now fitting in the few remaining panes of glass. In the interior the plastering and flooring are being pushed with as much rapidity as comports with good workmanship. The building being heated by steam, the plastering will be continued throughout the winter. Many of the black-walnut doors and panels are already finished. Inasmuch as this building is not only permanent, but fireproof throughout, the construction-materials being exclusively brick, stone, and iron, its growth is truly remarkable. Everything indicates that by the end of February or beginning of March it will be "swept and garnished" and awaiting the pictures and statues. Those who remember the agony with which the art building at Vienna was literally rushed in the spring of 1873, will be pleased to learn that there is no danger at Philadelphia of a like overhaste and tardy opening.

The Horticultural Building, also permanent, is finished, and indeed partly occupied. At least, one of the galleries is heated, and contains some fine specimens of orange-trees in fruit, cactuses, india-rubber trees, and other hot-house flora. The steam-pipes for the main hall are very nearly in order, and the workmen are arranging the soil for the beds. The visitor will probably pronounce this Horticultural Hall the prettiest and most attractive building on the grounds. Its dimensions, 383 by 193 feet, are larger than those of the palm-house at Vienna. It is better planned, and the decorations—polychrome frescoes and arabesques in the Moorish style—are charming. In its grace of contour and warmth of color it will afford a pleasing counterpart to the Renaissance lines and sober hue of the art building.

Agricultural Hall is the most backward of all. It met with a slight mishap early in the fall, the first few arches being blown down by a sudden gale before they had been fairly propped and stayed. But this accident has been promptly repaired, and the work since then has progressed at an extraordinary rate. Those who visited it only six weeks ago declare that it has grown like a mushroom. The simple nature of its structure explains the phenomenon. It consists of a nave, 820 feet in length, crossed at right angles by three transepts, each 540 feet in length. The framework of nave and transepts is a succession of slight and extremely-pointed

Gothic arches of wood. The arch is put together on the ground. When finished it is raised into position, shored, and attached to the arches already up by beams, upon which is laid the roof. About two-thirds of the arching is up, and for the most part roofed. Should the present mild weather continue, arching and roofing may be completed by the end of the year; a good deal will still remain to do. Each of the eight ends is to be flanked by towers, making a sort of façade, and the central point of the building is to be crowned by a tower. The spaces between the transepts (outside of the nave) are also to be covered over by secondary arches, parallel to the transepts but much lower. Still, the work is well in hand and need not be suspended, except in very heavy snow or rain or extreme frost. At all events, Agricultural Hall is considerably in advance of the agricultural buildings at Vienna. In general, I feel no hesitation in saying that the Philadelphia Exhibition has a start of at least three months over its predecessor. I base the assertion upon the impression that I obtained during a week's visit in Vienna at the end of January, 1873. No one of the great buildings there was at that time as far on as the corresponding building now is at Philadelphia.

What is true of the buildings is equally true of the grounds. The walks, drives, artificial water-courses and lakes, the grading, sodding, and garden work, at the Centennial are all that the friends of the enterprise can desire. And here it may be said that if not equal to the Bois de Boulogne in point of artistic development, the grounds have great natural advantages which make them much superior to the Prater enclosure. They are high, well drained, properly diversified, and decidedly picturesque. In one or two places they are intersected by ravines varying in depth, to be spanned by rustic bridges. From the eastern side one has charming views of the Schuylkill Valley here and there. George's or Reservoir Hill, on the west, overlooks the ground and buildings. Near this point has been erected a tall look-out tower, ascended by a steam elevator. From the top there is a superb panorama of river and city. The Main Building and Machinery Hall are in a line forming the southern boundary, the others are dotted somewhat irregularly over the grounds to north, east, and west, and present a very agreeable diversity of lines and angles. The central point is near the southeastern end of the United States Government Building. Here the principal walks intersect, and from here the eye can sweep over the great buildings ranged around. Unless we have an exceptionally severe and protracted winter, I see no reason why the Centennial may not be opened, according to programme, on the 10th of May, with turf and flowers and walks and the other paraphernalia of landscape gardening as far advanced as they were at Vienna by the end of June. There is not a little grading still to be done, but the two months from March 10 to May 10 should be amply sufficient. Besides, our picks and shovels and dumping-carts are much better, the railroad-tracks in the grounds are as three to one, and the visitor can scarcely help noticing every minute the difference between the American and the Austrian way of doing things. One of our laborers seems to accomplish as much as two in Austria. I may add that the building for the exhibition of the several departments of the National Government is almost finished. Some pieces of heavy artillery are already in position outside. The offices of the English and Japanese Commissions are under roof, and the same may be said of four of the five large restaurants in the grounds. The track of a narrow-gauge dummy-railroad to encircle the buildings, and carry visitors from one to the other, is partly laid.

The contemplated arrangements for conveying visitors to and from the grounds seem to me to be a near approach to perfection. I doubt whether such complete arrangements were made at any previous exhibition. The grounds, be it observed, lie in a sort of triangle between the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad and the Junction Railroad. Both lines—over which passes the entire Eastern, Western, and Southern traffic, through and local, of the city—are already within a few hundred feet of the gates. It is the intention of the Pennsylvania Railroad to construct sidings and a large temporary station just outside the southern gate. The Reading Railroad, with its main line and its Germantown and Norristown branches, can also use the Junction Railroad. Finally, passengers by the old Amboy and the South Jersey lines can be ferried across the Delaware to Washington-Street wharf, and thus be carried by the southern freight-track of the Pennsylvania Railroad around the city to the Junction road. It will not be necessary to go into further particulars. An inspection of the topography of the city and its remarkable railroad connections will show that visitors arriving by rail, from whatever quarter, can be landed directly at the gates without change of cars. The city railways are also in excellent order. Many of the lines running east and west already have their termini at the southern gate, and the others will terminate at this gate or the eastern gate by next spring. The capacity of both steam

and horse roads has been tested with satisfactory results. To the exercises held on the grounds on July 5 of this year were conveyed 133,809 persons, in great part children from the public schools. Of this aggregate 25,300 were conveyed by train service, and 108,500 by street-cars. These last, it is true, were unable to take all who offered themselves, and many thousands were compelled to walk. But, on the other hand, it is to be noted that no one foresaw such an immense concourse. The car companies were consequently unprovided. Warned by this experience, they are now making their preparations for doubling and even trebling their capacity, and assert that by spring they will be able to move daily at least 255,000 without delay or inconvenience.

Concerning the arrangements for lodging and feeding the thousands and millions of guests that are expected, I cannot speak with like confidence. Not that I doubt in the least that all who come will find good shelter and suitable food. But personal comfort is not a thing to be measured, weighed, or counted off in figures. Those who visit the Centennial must be prepared to forego some of the comforts of home and to pay a little higher price. But there will be ample room for all, and I venture to cherish the belief that there will not be that wholesale system of plundering and extortion that marred the first three months of the Vienna Exhibition. The existing hotels in the city are manifestly inadequate, and although the new hotels now in course of erection and very nearly finished in the immediate neighborhood of the grounds will accommodate 4,000 to 5,000 additional, still the tourist's chief reliance must be placed upon the boarding and lodging-houses. This subject is now being thoroughly worked up by the Centennial Lodging-house Agency. The managers are the agents of the Pennsylvania, the North Pennsylvania, and the Baltimore Railroads, Mr. Jenkins, of Cook's well-known tourists' agency in London, and Mr. Allen, editor of the *Railway Guide*. The object of the agency is to enter into arrangements whereby travellers can purchase railroad coupons entitling them to board and lodging at reasonable fixed rates. Philadelphia, it is known, has more spare rooms than any other city in the country. The number might be set down at very nearly 100,000. If the agency, then, can secure one-half the number, say 40,000, or only 30,000, it will have solved the problem. The number of new houses nearing completion in West Philadelphia, in the vicinity of the Exhibition, is very considerable. These new houses alone can be made to accommodate several thousands. The Centennial has developed already so much energy and such unexpected resources that we may look forward to the solution of this problem also in the right way and at the right time. Two circumstances are of great moment. The one is that the mass of visitors will be homogeneous. The number of foreigners, however great, will be trifling in comparison with the natives, who are used to expedients and quick in helping themselves over the inequalities of life. The other is that the people of Philadelphia, rather apathetic on the point a year ago, are now awaking rapidly to a sense of its vital importance. They begin to perceive that, unless they themselves lend a helping hand, the very object of the Exhibition may be frustrated. There are evidences among the wealthier classes of a disposition to remain in the city during the summer and keep open house for their friends, while the middle and lower classes are warming up, so to speak, to an unwonted step—namely, to let rooms and take transient boarders. From what I have gathered during my stay here, I am persuaded that there are hundreds and thousands of housekeepers who are now seriously considering the question whether, as the saying goes, "it would'n't be just as well as not to make a few dollars out of the Exhibition." The question is a novel one to them, but they will probably find only one answer to it.

The report on the finances of the Centennial has been submitted to Congress in an official document, which is within reach of every one. It will be unnecessary for me, therefore, to enter into a detailed statement of figures. But a brief explanation will serve to make the figures more intelligible. The Machinery, Memorial, and Horticultural Halls are permanent buildings, the gifts of the State and city, and paid for by State and municipal appropriations. But the Main Building, Agricultural Hall, the various annexes, the grading, bridging, gardening, the general offices and current outlay, must be provided for by other means. Stock subscriptions to the amount of \$2,357,750 (of which \$1,852,000 have been paid in) and concessions of privileges have been the chief source of income. The managers state that the sum of \$1,537,000 will be necessary to complete their work and open it on the 10th of May free from debt. They rely upon entrance-money to pay working expenses and refund the stock subscriptions. They pray Congress, therefore, for an appropriation of this sum of \$1,537,000. It must be admitted that their position is a strong one. According to a trite adage, nothing succeeds better than success. Last year the Centennial might be said to exist only on paper or in the imagination of a few zealous

advocates. Within twelve months it has put on shape and proportions; it is a definite creation, recognizable by all. Those who have it in charge have shown by unmistakable evidences of every kind that they know how to plan and work. A cursory glance at the grounds and buildings ought to convince the most sceptical that the managers have labored with great wisdom and economy, making every dollar yield its full return. Doubtless the consciousness of being thrown on their own resources has been the strong incentive. In so far, then, the former refusal of Congress to aid may be said to have been a gain; it has suppressed extravagance and sharpened the wits of the managers. But it may be well to admit that there are limits to all things, even to economy and wit-sharpening, and that nothing discourages good disposition more effectually than the failure to obtain practical recognition and sympathy. The managers approach Congress, saying: "We have done all that men in our position could do. We have accomplished something of which you and we have reason to be proud. But unless you are willing to let us begin operation under the burden of debt, you must help us. Please remember that our failure will not be our but your lasting reproach; for you have consented to enjoy the benefits of the Exhibition, you have accredited us abroad, you have invited foreign representation, you have given us a national character." Such language can scarcely be called an argument. Neither is it, on the other hand, a mere appeal to sentimentalism. It is a call upon the practical sense and good-will of the nation's representatives. I believe that the Congressional visit, which is announced for Friday, will convince Congressmen that the Centennial is, in truth, a great and noble enterprise, national and international in every sense, and deserving of aid. No one, it seems to me, can inspect the grounds and buildings and fail to be charmed with them. An experience of six months and more at Vienna warrants me in saying that the Centennial, although on a somewhat smaller scale, will be finer in many respects. It will certainly be more manageable, and hence more enjoyable. To look upon the Centennial as a purely local undertaking to the greater glory of Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, would be doing it grave injustice, in the face of palpable facts. The exhibition from the country at large is adequate, and already the demands for space from some of the States, Massachusetts, for instance, are greater than the supply. The credit and profit to be reaped by Philadelphia will not be greater than the city is justly entitled to for originating and prosecuting the enterprise.

LONDON SIGHTS.

[FROM AN OCCASIONAL CORRESPONDENT.]

LONDON, Nov. 10, 1875.

WHEN the Albert Memorial was completed and uncovered in London more than a year since, and displayed through the smoky air its treasures of florid architecture, there was much almost ribald jesting at the way the local atmosphere was destined to blight its gilding and its precious stones. The thing seemed like a sort of magnificent satire upon the London climate. Some five years ago the beautiful new structure of the Royal Academy was brilliant with its carved white stone and its gleaming statues; to-day it is of a dusky, smutty gray, and to-morrow it will be as black and hoary as Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's. Having seen the Albert Memorial just after its erection, I was lately curious to observe whether its splendor had as yet begun perceptibly to wane. It must be confessed that up to this moment it has made a very successful resistance. It will have the best wishes of all lovers of the picturesque for its continued success; for whatever may be thought of its artistic merit or of the moral necessity for having erected it, it at least may be valued by the London wayfarers as the sole specimen of vivid color in the metropolis. Its position of course helps to preserve its purity, with the vast open spaces of Kensington Gardens beside it and behind it in one quarter, and the mitigated contaminations of the far-spreading terraces and crescents of Prince's Gate, Queen's Gate, etc., facing it on the other. Readers interested in these matters may be reminded that the Memorial stands on the edge of Kensington Gardens, opposite the great red-and-yellow rotunda of Albert Hall—a sort of utilitarian Coliseum, which, I believe, has not been found very useful. The Memorial is a wonderful combination of British sculpture and architecture, gilding, mosaic, and the work of the lapidary. It consists of an immense gilt canopy of Gothic design, under which an image of the Prince-Consort is destined to repose. It rises colossally from a huge embankment, as it were, of steps, at each corner of which is a group in marble representing one of the four great continents. The "motive" of these groups is sufficiently picturesque, a great local beast, of heroic proportions—the bull, the bison, the camel, and the elephant—being in each case the central figure; but the sculpture, like

all the sculpture, is second-rate and common. It is the work, of course, of the highest English skill—of Messrs. Macdowell, Bell, Foley, and Theod. At each angle of the upper platform where the shafts of the canopy rise is another group—"Manufactures," by Mr. Weekes; "Commerce," by Mr. Thorneycroft; "Agriculture," by Mr. Marshall; and "Engineering," by Mr. Lawlor. Round this outer base of the canopy runs an immense frieze in white marble, executed half by Mr. Philip and half by Mr. Armstead, representing, a trifle below life-size, the array of the world's great artists—poets, painters, sculptors, musicians, and architects. They have been sagaciously chosen and cleverly combined, and the most expressive and original portion of the sculpture is here, we should say, especially on Mr. Armstead's side. As for the canopy itself, with its flamboyant Gothic, its columns of porphyry, its statues and statuettes of bronze and gold (or seeming gold), its chased and chased jeweller's-work, its radiant mosaics, its thick-strewn gems of malachite and lapis and jasper and onyx and more rare stones than we know the names of, its gables and spires and pinnacles and crockets, its general gleaming and flashing and climbing and soaring, its great jewelled cross at the summit—all this quite beggars description. We should say in general that the workmanship throughout has been of a finer sort than the original taste, and that if the Memorial preserves in the future the memory of our present knowingness in architecture, it will also perpetuate the modern weakness of that art which once unfolded the friezes along the Parthenon and suspended the tombs in the Italian cathedrals.

The exhibition of paintings by Gustave Doré now on view in London ceased a good while since to demand notice as a novelty, but has become one of the regular sights of the great city, and it suggests some reflections that are always pertinent. The general air of the establishment is not so much that of a temple of the arts as of an enterprising place of business. The pictures seem to be placed on view chiefly with the design of securing subscribers to certain projected engravings. The agents for subscriptions are liberally diffused through the rooms, and, as they mingle "quite promiscuously" (as the London vernacular has it) with the visitors, the latter are liable to be buttonholed in the midst of such attentive contemplation as Doré's canvases may have provoked. The engravings are to be executed in England, in the finest and smoothest style of the old-fashioned "line." It may very well be that the pictures will gain on being reduced to small dimensions and to simple black and white, for they look, as a general thing, like "illustrations" hugely magnified and rather crudely colored. The exhibition is of course an interesting one, and gives an extraordinary impression of imagination, vigor, and facility. On the whole, doubtless, one ought not to be afraid of enjoying it. We may be tolerably sure that, where his pictures are wanting, M. Doré knows it, that he has deliberately chosen to do only what he conveniently could, and that he has settled it in his mind that a magnificent effect, however obtained, is its own justification. The artist's "convenience," we are at liberty to infer, has been to cover an immense quantity of canvas and make a great deal of money. As for his effects, the best of them are certainly magnificent. The only valid criticism of Gustave Doré must rest, it seems to me, on the admission that in the degree to which he possesses the temperament of the designer—in energy, and force, and consistency of talent—he ranks with the few greatest names. He has a touch of Michael Angelo about him; the fact that he is an enterprising Parisian of the nineteenth century ought not to make this inconceivable to us. In the power to compose an immense combination of figures at short notice he recalls two of his greatest predecessors—Rubens and Tintoretto. We may prefer Rubens and Tintoretto, and yet do justice to other members of the family. It is Doré's own fault if so often we find it very easy to prefer them. He has chosen to work by wholesale, and so very often did they, who, however, had the advantage that wholesale painting in their times, owing to the essential tone of men's thoughts, could not of necessity be so superficial as it may be to-day. Their merit is that, whatever they did, they always achieved something that may be called painting; and Doré's fault is that half the time his work is not painting at all. It is a rapid, superficial application of turbid and meaningless color—an imitation of painting not always particularly skilful. The two great things in London—the "Christ coming down from Judgment" and the "Tapis Vert"—are full of examples of this. The latter of these—a very cleverly imaginative representation of the gaming-table at Baden-Baden—is well known by photography, and known very favorably. The photograph flatters it, and so probably will the engraving, in giving it a charm of detail which the original lacks. The other picture—one of the largest ever painted—is full of imagination, skill, and power, and looks, as we intimated, like one of Doré's most successful drawings shown by a magic-lantern. It is a most extraordinary performance. The other pictures are full of cleverness and invention, especially

certain "Christian Martyrs in the Coliseum," a heap of corpses lying in the empty arena, with wild beasts prowling over them in the blue starlight, and cold, phantasmal angels hovering above. The landscapes are singularly bad, many of them looking for all the world like second-rate American work. The best things have a merit which the way Doré has cheapened himself has made at last to seem trivial, but which would seem quite incomparable if it had been more abruptly presented. Their great fault is that they have no agreeable passages of painting—nothing exquisite, nothing that looks not only as if the artist had lingered over it, but as if he had even paused at it.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have nearly ready "The Orphan of Pimlico," a collection of sketches, fragments, and drawings by the late W. M. Thackeray, edited by Miss Thackeray. The drawings are reproduced by facsimile.—Stieler's Atlas, which has put off the detailed map of Africa as long as possible, is obliged to come to it in the last but one of its issues, Part 29 (New York: L. W. Schmidt). This number contains plates of Northeastern Africa and Arabia, and of Southern Africa (below the equator) and Madagascar, along with one of Spain and Portugal. In Part 23 of Stieler, by the way, a map (No. 45) showing the British Islands and adjacent waters with their soundings, indicates the fatal Kentish Knock and the neighboring shoals so lately the scene of the distressing accident to the *Deutschland*.

—An extremely valuable annual, the 'Deutsches Akademisches Jahrbuch,' has just made its first appearance in Leipzig (New York: L. W. Schmidt). It is a sort of directory, aiming at completeness, to the academies of science, the universities, and higher schools of technology in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and the German provinces of Russia, and forms a compact volume of more than 700 pages. A number of attempts of this kind have been made within the past hundred years, and some have had a fair success, but the field appears to have become open again, especially on the statistical side, which has been practically neglected since 1812. A list of these calendars; historical sketches of the rise and spread of academies and universities both in Germany and in the rest of Europe; and brief accounts of the more ancient and now extinct German universities, precede the directory proper. As a sample of this, we may take first the University of Berlin (pp. 34-75). Under this head we find given its origin, the statutes under which it was founded, the government and faculties, the entire list of instructors, the academic societies and their badges, and, finally, lists of rectors and deans, and statistics of instruction and attendance from 1810 to 1874 in the various departments of the university. Under the Prussian Academy of Sciences, we find a list of actual members and another of members deceased in 1873-74. The technological schools are somewhat more restricted in their statistics, nor is every institution treated with equal fulness except as regards *personnel*. The appendix gathers up the loose ends, adding and correcting, and indicating the latest changes among officials and professors; and the *Jahrbuch* closes with a copious index of persons. We have omitted to name the industrious compiler, Hans Adam Stoehr, lately librarian of the Dresden Deutsche Akademie der Naturforscher, which dates back to the year 1652, and which has this curious distinction that to every member's real name is added an academic designation (*Beiname* or cognomen). Formerly, these cognomina were drawn from the myth of the Argonauts, to which the quest of science was likened. But nowadays the president assigns a name of some departed worthy having a more or less obvious relation to the member's favorite pursuit. Thus, to take the American membership, Prof. Henry answers to the appropriate name of Smithson; P. of. Dana is to the Academy Pliny XII.; Profs. T. Sterry Hunt and Charles A. Joy, Humphry Davy I. and II. respectively; Dr. Asa Gray is Walther II., etc., etc.

—The late Johns Hopkins, wishing to establish a home for orphan colored children, a training-school for female nurses, and a hospital for four hundred patients—the hospital to be a part of the Johns Hopkins University—placed three millions of dollars, besides adequate real estate, in the hands of trustees, and sketched his wishes with comprehension and clearness. He neither trammelled his agents with unnecessary restrictions nor set them adrift on a sea of possibilities; and he especially enjoined them to obtain the advice and assistance of those skilled in hospital construction and management. The result of carrying out these instructions is a valuable volume, of three hundred and fifty pages, entitled 'Essays upon Hospital Organization.' The contributors are Drs. Norton Folsom, of Boston; Ste-

phen Smith, of New York; Casper Morris, of Philadelphia; John S. Billings, of the Army; and Joseph Jones, of New Orleans; and it is clear that the trustees are now suffering from an embarrassment of riches. They offer this treasure to the world as in consonance with the beneficent designs of the founder, and they solicit instructive criticism. Professor Jones's is the only paper that does not rise well above mediocrity, and the volume is probably the best exposition of the present state of this branch of knowledge; while occasional conflicting views hint at the inexactness of much of our so-called science. The intention which any hospital expresses is one of the highest forms of human benevolence, but benevolence does not always culminate in beneficence, and it sometimes strays into direct disaster. A hundred years ago, one-fourth of those admitted to the Hôtel Dieu died there. Twenty years ago, one in two died in the Koulali hospitals on the Black Sea. Such grave mortality means radical errors, and these errors sanitarians are now seeking to discover and uproot. Besides the regulation of space, fresh air, temperature, and light, which indeed is necessary for the maintenance of health among the well, the sick require protection against the evils which they themselves create, and which collectively are known as hospitalism. The worst form of hospitalism depends upon poisoning by organic germs that may effect a lodgment in the edifice or in its furniture, and serve to propagate serious disease indefinitely. The prevention or the removal and destruction of these is the sanitary problem of the day. To epitomize the varied and plausible suggestions made in these essays would lead too far into special studies. The cautious but liberal policy pursued by the trustees leads us to hope that they will not throw away the opportunity to establish such a medical college as Dr. Billings and Dr. Smith sue for; that is, one that shall look only to the quality and not at all to the number of its students and its graduates. Medicine, by the confession of its leaders, is full of "half-baked" men. Johns Hopkins, by the amount and the spirit of his benefactions, has made it possible that the graduates of one American school shall be "done through." A hospital founded for the propagation of disease would be the physical counterpart of a new college on the old plan—to turn out more classes, like ready-made clothing, in ranks of uniform insipidness and unreliability. An appendix by Mr. John R. Niernsée, architect to the Board, describes the plan adopted for the colored orphan asylum, and a second paper by the same author gives an ingenious architectural study of an octagonal ward. The index is well arranged for a book by different authors, but it is incomplete, and a slip occurs in it, as well as more than once in the body of the work, where August is written for Angus (Smith). The volume, which is illustrated by many plans, is published in good style by Wm. Wood & Co., and must become a reference-book of the first order.

—Dr. Wharton's admonition in a recent *Lippincott's* that the priests and votaries of Spiritualism might any day find themselves in court—perhaps to their disadvantage—was not premature. His article was hardly off the press when the now famous Ward will case was called in Detroit, bringing mediums and believers and "manifestations" upon the scene. The late Eber B. Ward fell dead in the streets of that city, of apoplexy, in January last. He left five grown-up children by his first wife, whom he had divorced in order to take another. His widow has two small children. Of the former, one is insane, one imbecile, and two—the brothers Milton and Charles—are at least capable of very queer conduct, and have been unsuccessful in their attempts to conduct business on their own account. These last set about contesting their father's will before his body had yet reached his home. The instrument was found to have two codicils, the second of which, added six months after the first, directed the executors, as trustees, to pay each of the five children (who were otherwise comfortably settled) not more than \$200 a month for their support, unless in case of sickness. About a third of his property, including several extensive business interests, he bequeathed in fee simple to the second wife. The estate, being valued at something like four millions over and above liabilities, was a prize worth contending for, and some of the ablest counsel in the Northwest were employed on both sides. The will was attacked as being the production of a man who was either insane or under undue influence at the time. To prove Mr. Ward insane his belief in Spiritualism was alleged, but this was ruled out by the judge, on the ground that Spiritualism was a religion, like any other, and he allowed the fact to have a bearing only upon the question of undue influence. Thereupon, a number of mediums were brought forward to testify to Capt. Ward's frequent consultations with them, both for ordinary purposes and with a view to making his will. It was shown that he had a sort of familiar spirit known as "Cabbage John," a German geologist, who advised him as to the merits of all sorts of speculations; and the medium through whom this savant acted consented in open court to go into a trance, and was taken possession of by a spirit who would not answer to

questions in English, but when asked—*Wie heissen Sie?* replied, "Andrew Kurthaldrus," and would apparently have been more communicative if the audience had been more inquisitive. The original draught of a communication from departed relatives of the testator's second wife was produced, and was manifestly in accord with the final provisions of his will. On the other hand, many witnesses testified to Capt. Ward's repeated declarations that he had no implicit faith in the superior wisdom of the spirits, but held their advice always to be subject to mundane judgment. And the fact that from being a cabin-boy on the Lakes he had amassed an enormous fortune and become the leading capitalist of the Northwest, either proved his substantial independence of ghostly counsel, or else that such counsel might profitably be sought by the rest of mankind. Such was, in fact, the variety of his enterprises, that "he smelted iron at Wyandotte, Milwaukee, and Chicago; mined silver on Lake Superior, and copper in Arizona; cut timber in the Muskegon prairies, and in Ohio and Wisconsin; made plate-glass in Missouri; controlled or projected railroads in Michigan, Iowa, and Louisiana; and still found time to attend to his duties as a director of one of the national banks of Detroit, to serve that city as a member at large of its Board of Estimates, to write an occasional 'open letter' on the currency, and to make his influence felt in important political and public movements."

—After forty-five days of patient listening the jury disagreed, except that they all thought the second codicil to have been unduly executed. All but one thought Capt. Ward competent to make a will; eight thought the will and codicil had been made under undue influence. The judge's charge was at least noticeable. He warned the jury that they were not called upon to pass upon the truth or falsity of Spiritualism, adding that the Court could not if it would enlighten them about it, and that it was "just possible that a decision of this Court on that subject would not be regarded in the only tribunal in which it could be of any service to us." The fact that Captain Ward believed in the reality and importance of spiritual communications, "and even did consider them in relation to the will in question, or make the will in accordance with such communications," would not of itself tend to show unsoundness of mind. "But if such communications are received to the exclusion of the testator's own judgment, acting upon them not because he approves them but only because he believes them to be given by spirits of departed friends, giving up to them entirely his own free will, I need hardly say to you that a will made under such circumstances would not be the will of the testator." It deserves to be mentioned that no evidence was offered or suggested to connect the surviving Mrs. Ward with the communication, purporting to come from her father and cousin, by which the will was shaped; so that no charge of conspiracy could be brought against the medium (who lived away from Detroit). She earned her usual fee, we may suppose, without collusion, and without any interest in the issue of the struggle between the disembodied "Polly" and "R. Lyon."

—The controversy as to the art-frauds of American sculptors in Italy has received a temporary quietus. Mr. Pierce Connelly took Mr. S. W. Healy to court as a calumniator, and Mr. Healy's principal witness, Franchini, broke down, with unmistakable signs of having traded in his principal's credulity. The result was a sentence of the defendant to a fortnight's imprisonment and a fine of £200, and of the publisher of his organ, the *Touriste*, to half the penalty. An appeal has been taken from this decision, but with no great prospects, so far as we can see. In the nature of the case, charges like these brought by Mr. Healy can be proved only with the greatest difficulty.

—The French scholar, Georges Perrot, Member of the Institute, has recently published a collected volume of essays, entitled '*Mémoires d'archéologie, d'épigraphie et d'histoire*,' which originally appeared in various periodicals and transactions; the volume is appropriately dedicated to the distinguished epigraphist Waddington. The essays are twelve in number, classified as indicated in the title, and illustrated, where necessary, with excellent lithographs. Thus it contains, in the first part, several interesting plates illustrating works of art, especially paintings found at Rome in the recent excavations on the Palatine. We are especially struck with a painting of Polyphemus and Galatea, and the view of a street in Rome. The epigraphic portion contains some hitherto unedited Greek inscriptions, coming from Asia Minor and Thrace. The historical essays also have reference to the East—Disappearance of the Gallic Language in Galatia, Campaign of Caesar against Pharnaces, Popular Superstitions of the Modern Greeks, and Commerce in Money at Athens. This last is a very interesting sketch of the trade of money-dealers at Athens, who are shown to have anticipated in many respects the money processes of modern times; for

instance, in the freedom of the rate of interest, in the use of bills of exchange, and even of checks and endorsement. The history of a leading banking-house is sketched from data furnished by the oration of Isocrates against Pasion (*Trapezitês*) and that of Demosthenes for Phormio.

CHARLES EDWARD.*

WHAT was the true character of the last Stuart who fought for the Crown of England? Poetry and sentiment have painted him as the last of the heroes of chivalry, and the facts of history at first sight bear out the legend of romance. When a youth of twenty-five, he came with scarcely a follower to a land which he had never seen, and where he might instantly have been betrayed into the hands of his foes. He rallied round him a few clans of half-armed Highlanders. With a force which at no time amounted to 10,000 men, he overran Scotland, he occupied Edinburgh, he defeated in one battle after another the trained soldiers of Great Britain. He marched into the midst of England without meeting the slightest opposition. He retreated because the courage of his followers would not support his daring proposal to advance on London. Even in retreat he repelled the only force which dared to molest his victorious Highlanders. In Scotland, he again vanquished his foes in regular battle; and when hunger, fatigue, and want, rather than the prowess of his opponents, had worn down his army, he still rallied for a last desperate effort on the field of Culloden. After defeat, the heroic fidelity of his followers and the perils of his escape cast round him a halo of romance. The imagination of sympathetic contemporaries was touched by the dramatic incidents of the Prince's career. "For what wise end," writes the journalist of the escape, "heaven has thus disappointed and yet preserved this noble Prince, and what future scenes the history of his life may display, time only can tell, yet something very remarkable still seems awaiting him and this poor country also"; and all Paris, which, not quite fifty years later, went mad with republican hatred of kings and tyrants, greeted with enthusiastic applause the young hero who had fought and nearly conquered on behalf of the divine right of monarchs. Posterity, moreover, which is supposed to be an impartial and infallible judge of men and their deeds, has, with easy credulity, adopted the Jacobite view of the career and character of the last idol of Jacobitism.

But, however natural it be for unreflecting sentimentalists to lavish admiration on the Charles Stuart of 1745, no one who has the slightest knowledge of history can be ignorant of the fact that the "noble Prince" who led the Highlanders to victory ended his life as a debauched sot, too contemptible to excite the fears of his rival, and too vile to retain the respect or the affection of his adherents. The contrast between the Prince who, at twenty-five, landed in the Highlands, and the wretched being who, forty years later, excited the contempt and loathing of the citizens of Florence, is the most painful and, at a first glance, the strangest which history presents. Other men have fallen away in old age from the promise or the glory of their youth. What is peculiar to the life of Charles Stuart is that he fell at once from something like greatness to a condition of degradation. In 1746, he was the idol of France. In 1748, he had not lost the hearts of the French people, but the French king and his ministers knew well that the popular hero was the most worthless of a worthless family. His empty protests against the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; his inability to understand the position or needs of France; his undignified resistance to the demand that he should leave the country—all show that within three years of the expedition to Scotland the young Pretender had developed the worst faults of a royal adventurer. Those who like to trace the rapidity and the depth of this fall may read what is known of his later years in Mr. Ewald's biography. It may suffice to say that Charles Stuart quarrelled with his brother and father; wore out the patience of his protectors; estranged even the sympathy of the Pope; outraged and insulted his mistress; showed callous indifference to the interests of his followers, who were prepared to risk fortune and life for his sake; treated his wife with such brutality and meanness that her flight from him was sanctioned by the approval of the Pope and of Cardinal York; and (that no disgrace might be wanting) showed in his later years that the vices of a libertine might be combined with the parsimony of a miser and the cowardice of a bully. The more the facts of the Prince's life are examined, the more perplexing seem, on a cursory view, the contradictions of his character and career.

Yet the enigma is not, we suspect, really hard of solution. The explanation given by Mr. Ewald is simple, but more simple than satisfac-

* The Life and Times of Prince Charles Stuart, commonly called The Young Pretender. By A. C. Ewald. London: Chapman & Hall.

tory. Charles Stuart was, on his view, a hero till 1748, and a blackguard ever after. The terrible transformation was, he conceives, due to dipsomania; and the generous youth of 1745 sunk into degradation under the influence of drink. Now, that the Prince's passion for drink, which had developed before he left Scotland, was one of the elements of his ruin, no man of common sense can doubt; and if it were necessary to grant that the royal adventurer was a man of heroic mould when he landed in Scotland, perhaps no better explanation of the darkness which surrounds his old age could be found than that adopted by Mr. Ewald. But the necessity for this explanation is removed if it can be shown that in his time of prosperity, no less than in his days of adversity, the Prince betrayed the worst features of his character. In the heyday of youth, the spoilt favorite of the Pope and the petty princes of Italy no doubt displayed a dash and vigor of which you can find but small signs in the career of the adventurer who, in later life, fatigued kings and ministers by his undignified supplications and fruitless intrigues, and it may be conceded that the loss of physical nerve was due to drink. But except dash and the possession of those superficial graces in which few of the Stuarts were deficient, the hero of 1745 seems at no time to have possessed any of the qualities of greatness. The partial success of his movement argues considerable military talents on the part of its leader, but that leader was not Charles Stuart. Sir Walter Scott cannot be called an unfriendly witness, and he testifies to the fact that the man to whose genius the victories of 1745 were due was Lord George Murray. "Charles Edward," he writes, "had not a head or heart for great things, notwithstanding his daring adventure; and the Irish officers by whom he was guided were poor creatures. Lord George Murray was the soul of the undertaking." This is the dictum of a man inclined by every prejudice to overrate the merits and gloss over the defects of all the Stuarts. It is further borne out by contemporary evidence. "Had Prince Charles slept during the whole expedition," says the Chevalier Johnstone in a passage cited by Lockhart, "and I allowed Lord George Murray to act for him according to his own judgment, there is every reason for supposing that he would have found the Crown of Great Britain on his head when he awoke." Fortunately for Great Britain, Prince Charles had the "head" of a Stuart; he could neither devise great things himself nor appreciate the greatness of others. Throughout the whole of the expedition he suspected and thwarted Lord George Murray, whilst he looked with childish trust and favor on Murray of Broughton, who ultimately betrayed his associates, as he doubtless would have betrayed his Prince, in order to preserve his own miserable life.

With Prince Charles, again, as with all the Stuarts, the faults of his head were intimately connected with the meanness of his heart. From the moment of the retreat from Derby, he showed that he had none of the strength which bears up against adversity. He sulked, he refused to consult others, he followed the suggestions either of favorites or of his own mind. Every step taken was a mistake, and for each mistake the Prince was responsible. Nor were his errors redeemed by his valor. Whether he was really wanting in courage or not must always remain open to doubt. It is certainly strange that he, like three at least of his ancestors, should have left it open to doubt whether, after throwing away the lives of others, he was not chary of risking his own. The fidelity of the Highlanders gives an impression (which is erroneous) that the Prince gained the affection of those who knew him. The men who stood nearest to him neither loved nor admired him. He had, it may be supposed, a captivating manner, but in the qualities of his heart and mind he was a true Stuart—that is, a man of cold feelings and narrow intellect. When he exhibited at once his stupidity and his brutality by refusing to dismiss a mistress whom he disliked in order to save the lives of followers to whom he owed everything, an indignant Jacobite asked a question which must rise in the mind of every one who reads the life of the last Stuart who claimed to be King of England, "What has your family done to draw down the vengeance of heaven on every branch of it through so many ages?" Nor is the answer hard to find: the family, with rare consistency, pursued an undeviating course of short-sighted selfishness. What was true of the family was true of Prince Charles. Their vices were his vices, and the ruin of the man was like the ruin of his race.

History of the Civil War in America. By the Comte de Paris. Translated, with the approval of the author, by Louis F. Tasistro. Edited by Henry F. Coppée, LL.D. Vol. I. (Philadelphia: Joseph H. Coates & Co. 1875.)—This volume comprises the first two volumes of the original, and as the latter were noticed at length in the *Nation* of January 28, 1875, it will only be necessary here to speak of the merits of the translation itself. This has been done by Mr. Tasistro, formerly a translator in the State Department

at Washington, and it is edited by Professor Henry Coppée, who is more or less widely known as an ex-army officer and instructor at West Point, and lately president of the Lehigh University. The editor's part in the work seems to have been very slight; he has twelve small foot-notes on matters of little or no consequence, and the few errors which crept into the original seem to have escaped him. As an example of typographical errors: on p. 164, Aquia Creek is said to be on the *left* bank of the Potomac; of small errors of fact, on p. 23, we learn that the President is entitled to dismiss an officer of the army whenever he pleases. Again, on p. 182, the author gropes rather blindly among the statistics of census and emigration to discover the percentage of foreigners and native-born citizens in the volunteer army, deducing as his result that about two-thirds of the army were natives. The editor might have helped him here by quoting the table from the Adjutant-General's report for 1855, which gives the total numbers and exact percentage of each nationality; the percentage of natives was 75.48. The translation is free and flowing; perhaps it would have been more vigorous and forcible had it been more literal; but, on the whole, it is very good. Only in pure technicalities is the translator occasionally at fault. For instance, in the original, speaking of the labors of the Commissary Department, the author says: "Il n'y a pas de non-valeurs pour le commissaire aux vivres." *Non-valeurs* is translated "dead-heads," which is hardly an improvement on its literal meaning of non-combatants. Again, on p. 307, we find this very blind sentence: "Thus . . . they *saved* this ball a degree of velocity only one-half less than the amount it would have *required* if fired from the Armstrong gun." The original is plain enough, and reads: "Ainsi . . . ils *obtenaient* pour ce boulet une vitesse qui n'était que de la moitié inférieure à celle que lui aurait *donnée* cette dernière pièce." Of the fourteen maps which accompany the original, the publishers have reproduced only six. In this we think they have erred, and that they should have added at least the map of Virginia and Maryland, and that of Kentucky and Tennessee. The general plan of operations is incomprehensible without them, and good maps of the States for military readers are not so easily procurable as the editor intimates. The maps which have been reproduced, however, are admirable. Of the print, paper, and binding of the book we cannot speak too highly, and its cost is less than half that of the original, including duties. This work was written principally for European readers; but we advise all Americans to read it carefully and judge for themselves if "the future historian of our war," of whom we have heard so much, be not already arrived in the Comte de Paris.

Money, and the Mechanism of Exchange. By W. S. Jevons. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—This book is not, as might be supposed from the direction which the studies of the author have already taken, a treatise on the science of currency and exchange, but is rather a descriptive one, embodying what we might call the natural history of the subject. The largest part of the work is taken up with a description of the numerous articles which have served the purpose of money in past ages, accompanied by a commentary on their respective merits. He touches but lightly on the modern theory of the subject, because that has already been discussed by Mr. Bagehot in his volume on Lombard Street and the money market. Mr. Jevons's work must, on the whole, be considered as one of great value, as giving very full information on a subject of which, considering its importance, very little is generally known. The small space which, for the reason just given, is devoted to the theory of the subject, renders extended criticism unnecessary, but we cannot help noticing the disproportionate attention bestowed on the money of the past. The cattle and leather money of ancient times is described and discussed with great detail; one section is occupied with the attempt of the Russian Government to coin platinum, which was abandoned some time ago; while the present irredeemable paper currencies of Austria, Russia, and Italy are disposed of with the simple allusion to their existence. Considering the great want in this country at the present time of exact information respecting the working of these currencies and the policies of the respective governments in regard to them, we cannot but regret this omission. Several disconnected paragraphs relate to the paper currency of this country, which the author seems to have studied with much care. We must, however, remark on his singular misapprehension of the requirement of our national banking law, that a reserve of twenty-five per cent. shall be kept up. He seems to think that this requires the banks to suspend even the redemption of their own notes when the reserve falls below this point—a *bêtise* which we fondly hope is below our national Congress. The work being limited to the subject of the "mechanism" of exchange, the reader who takes it up expecting to find anything especially suggestive in it will be disappointed. We must, however, except the chapter on a "tabular" standard of value, which, if human nature were a little more perfect than

it is, both intellectually and morally, would soon force itself into recognition whenever obligations were incurred to pay money at a very distant interval. The principle on which this proposed standard is based is this: there is no commodity whatever the absolute value of which can be considered as invariable during long intervals. Measured by its average purchasing power, the value of gold itself is subject to slow changes. Hence when one agrees to pay a hundred gold dollars fifty years hence there is some uncertainty as to what the averaging purchasing power of those dollars would be. But if, instead of taking a certain quantity of gold, the agreement should be to deliver certain specified amounts of a large number of the products of labor, such as wheat, coal, beef, bricks, cloth, etc., the uncertainty as to the absolute value of the consideration to be received would be greatly diminished. If, at the time of payment, the gold value of the sum total of the products were greater than at present, it would show that the absolute value of gold had diminished, and *vice versa*. Although the difficulties in the way of bringing such a standard into practical use in the present condition of society are too obvious to render any mention of them necessary, yet the system is worthy of careful study, as giving a clear idea of what a standard of value should be.

Norse Mythology; or, The Religion of our Forefathers. Containing all the Myths of the Eddas, systematized and interpreted, with an Introduction, Vocabulary, and Index. By R. B. Anderson, A.M. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1875. 12mo, pp. 473.)—It is quite the fashion nowadays to find fault with the way in which we are brought up, and with the kind of knowledge which is put into our heads in early life. From beginning to end, our education has come to be a favorite subject for criticism. We have studied the things we ought not to have studied, it is said, and have been kept in ignorance of topics with which we ought to be familiar. And so, among other things, it is not unfrequently remarked as singular that we, who are supposed to be the descendants of Teutonic heathens, should know next to nothing about the religion of our own forefathers, while the foreign phrases belonging to Greek and Roman heathendom are household words among us. Every schoolboy knows something about Herakles, and Cerberus, and the gardens of the Hesperides, and any popular orator is capable of making allusions to Achilles or Helen, while the very names of Thor and Fenris-wolf, or the apples of Idun, are known only to scholars, and the legend of Sigurd and Brynhild, even when presented on the stage with all the genius of Janauschek, was thought to be too strange and outlandish to interest the public. While the fact is undoubtedly so, there is nothing in the explanation of it so difficult as to require any special comment. However Teutonic we may be in direct ancestry (and it is an open question whether we are not quite as much Celtic as Teutonic), there is no doubt that all our higher culture, including our religion and religious traditions, has been got from our long association with the Roman Empire. The scientific, philosophic, and artistic work of Greece, and the religious and ethical work of Judea, made an integral part of that all-comprehensive work known as Roman civilization—a work in which all Celtic and Teutonic Europe was gradually led to take part, so that what we call "Christendom" is but another name for the "Roman World" with the character of its "imperium" enlarged and modified. Whatever may be our physical pedigree, we are spiritually the descendants of the Hellenized and Hebraized Roman; and in retaining the traditional recollection of his heathen notions, and of their supplanting by Judaic Christianity, we are simply keeping up a natural and continuous historical tradition; and the shape which our classical education has taken is but one of the ways in which we have sought to preserve this historic continuity of tradition. What the followers of Hengist and Horsa may have believed about Balder and Wodan, as well as what was taught and sung by Druidic bards before the arrival of the Teuton in England, is of real interest to us; but it is naturally an interest of an antiquarian and scholarly sort, since both these groups of beliefs were long ago quite discarded by our ancestors. They did not enter into the stream of Roman culture, and ceased to have any future before them from the time when England became Christian. They have survived in a fragmentary way, in a number of interesting sporadic superstitions and customs, but for a dozen centuries have had very little influence upon our higher and more serious thought in comparison with the immense influence exerted thereon by beliefs that bear the stamp of the Roman mint.

But while our ancestral theories of the world have been thus overgrown and superseded by theories elaborated on foreign soil, they are none the less interesting in themselves or worthy of study for their own sake. Nor would it be true to say that they have not left well-marked traces on our words

and customs, if not on our thinking. The mere etymological fact that the word "God" (*Guodan*), which we use to describe the Infinite and Eternal Sustainer of the universe, is but a variant pronunciation of the word "Odin" or "Wodan" (*Guodan*), by which the Norseman personified the "all-pervading" *Storm-wind*—this mere fact (see *North American Review*, October, 1869, p. 354) ought to be enough to lead us to enquire what the Norseman thought of Odin and what attributes he ascribed to him. The fact that the mistletoe-bough under which Mr. Pickwick saluted the dowager of the house of Wardle is descended from the mistletoe by which the beloved Balder (all because of Loki's mischief) was slain in the big-boy sport of the gods of Valhalla—even this fact might well make the innumerable readers of Dickens curious about Balder and Loki.

In Prof. Anderson's book, the story of Norse mythology is well rendered, albeit with a touch of commonplace moralizing and occasional "fine-writing" which is a slight drawback to the literary merit of the work, but still is not likely to injure it with the general reader. This criticism applies more especially to the introductory portion. When we once get *in medias res*, we find that Prof. Anderson gives us an admirably methodical and lucid account of Norse ideas as embodied in the elder and younger Edda, with some assistance from later sagas, the whole being so fully illustrated with translated extracts as to leave the reader nothing to desire. The work is done, too, with creditable accuracy, and there is perhaps no other book at hand to which we would so soon refer the general reader desirous of learning something about the mythology of our forefathers.

Gift-Books for Children.—In returning once more to the juvenile literature of the season, our space warns us to be brief, and to dismiss with a word books which might pleasantly be characterized by extracts. The grand division of those which relate to the animal creation may worthily be introduced by Mrs. Trimmer's 'History of the Robins' (T. Nelson & Sons), well-known to the youthful readers of a generation ago as a gentle history told both from within the nest and without it. The book is beautifully made, and has seventy charming illustrations from designs by Giacomelli, whose delineations of birds, and especially the motion of birds, are notoriously skilful. The same house publish 'Half-Hours with the Animals: Narratives exhibiting Thought, Sympathy, and Affection in the Brute Creation'—an interesting collection, with an orthodox, anti-Darwinian reference to the first chapter in Genesis "as the only credible and the only intelligible account we have of the rise of 'the animal creation'"; 'The Land of the Lion,' or, in other words, Africa, with stories and pictures, drawn from various sources, of lions, falcons, deer, the ibis, crocodile, hippopotamus, elephant, etc., etc.; and, by the clever author of the 'Life of a Bear,' 'Goatland: a Story of Country Life,' which has many things to tell of besides goats. What distinguishes 'The History of My Friends: or, Home-Life with Animals' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the odd sort of pets not often associated with "home-life"—for example, an ostrich, a gazelle, and a puma, not to mention a monkey, a parrot, a mule from which even Josh Billings might learn something, dogs, cats, etc., etc. It was at Marseilles, convenient of access by sea to all tropical countries, that the fortunate little boy lived who made friends with all these strange creatures. The work is excellently translated from the French of Emile Achard, and is racy and mirthful in style. We may as well recommend here two books not specially intended for the young, but which would certainly interest intelligent boys and girls of ten to twelve and upwards—perhaps even some of their juniors. We mean Mr. Frank Buckland's 'Log-book of a Fisherman and Zoölogist' (J. B. Lippincott & Co.) and the Rev. J. G. Wood's 'Popular Natural History' (Geo. Routledge & Sons). Mr. Buckland's gossip covers a multitude of subjects, though he is perhaps most at home when in sight of salt-water. He discovers that Landseer "purposely introduced 'his favorite bit of red' into nearly all his pictures"; visits in a sympathizing spirit the exhibitions outside the cattle-show; gives the biography of an old man-of-war's man; describes a dinner of horseflesh and another of American game—the only chapter in which we have noticed him prefer "negroes" to "niggers"; tells of divers and their adventures, of the Brighton aquarium, of the Scotch red-deer, the wolves, the fur-seal, his monkeys, the "bore" on the Severn; and throughout is chatty and entertaining. The pictures in Mr. Wood's 'Natural History' will attract youngsters of uncertain age, and the older they are and the better they can read, the more they will dip into the text, and they will find the greater part of it not difficult to understand. The arrangement is systematic.

Of made-up books we give the first place to Mr. Stockton's 'Tales Out of School' (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.), which will be sufficiently described and commended to many of our readers when we say that it is another

'Roundabout Rambles.' It is an inexhaustible fund of amusement and instruction, and, besides its home uses, would make a capital prize-book for country schools; and a tired teacher, armed with it, might convert a dull day into a perfectly delightful occasion. Mr. Stockton has, we think, somewhat departed from his plan in combining plates borrowed from different sources to illustrate a single narrative; the overcrowded adventures of "Col. Myles" might better have been distributed among the real heroes of them—e.g., Sir Samuel Baker. Is there any reason why they should not have a celebrity among children? 'The Golden Harp Album' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) contains many pretty pieces, especially the prose selections, but the collection as a whole is of mixed merit. For its morality and theology, it will compare favorably with Sunday-school literature.

Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen, M.P., does not change his spots, and we need only refer to the illustration, facing p. 33, of the crane and hag in mortal combat, for an index to the spirit of his latest child's story, 'Higgledy-Piggledy' (Macmillan & Co.) In the 'Adventures of Johnny Ironsides,' from the French of J. Girardin (Routledge), we have a not altogether edifying sensational story of the late war between France and Germany, of which the hero is an English boy who takes sides with the French, and who, in the true Anglomaniac spirit, is endowed by the author with all the muscular virtues. The Prussian invader is, of course, burlesqued on every possible occasion. A very pretty fairy story is Rosa Mulholland's 'Puck and Blossom' (Pott, Young & Co.), and its six illustrations in gold and colors are very taking novelties. In the same manner are illustrated the 'Cruise of the Acorn,' by Alice Jerrold—a performance that falls below the expectations raised by the author's name—and 'Malcomb Manor,' a love-story with quite too much romance and false sentiment in it to make it wholesome for the "youths and misses" of sweet sixteen. From the same firm we have 'The House that Jack Built,' grotesquely illustrated in flat colors, a style that we should like to meet with oftener; the travesty seems to us rather strained, but, of course, it is meant for the youngest readers. Of 'Roddy's Reality,' by Helen Kendrick Johnson (G. P. Putnam's Sons), it is only necessary to say that the writer belongs to the school of Miss Alcott. Her talents, and she is undeniably clever, seem to us quite thrown away in work of this character.

A separate paragraph is due to Mr. Francis Turner Palgrave's 'Children's Treasury of English Song' (Macmillan & Co.) In this field the compiler's taste is well known to be unexceptionable. He has had in view children of nine or ten and those of fifteen or sixteen years of age, and has divided his work into two parts accordingly. The selections are mainly lyrical and of a high order, and any one will be glad to own in this dainty shape the masterpieces of the older and the modern English poets. Into their reverend company Mr. Palgrave admits Bryant and Longfellow, but no other Americans. Foot-notes explain difficult or obsolete words, and at the end are notes historical and critical and a chronological list of authors.

* * Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Adams (C. F.), Familiar Letters of John Adams and His Wife.....	(Hurd & Houghton) \$2 00
Adams (Sarah F.), Nearer, My God, to Thee. Illustrated.....	(Lee & Shepard) 2 00
Arnold (M.), God and the Bible.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Ballads of Home. Illustrated.....	(Lee & Shepard) 3 50
Bombay (Prof. C. C.), Literature of Kissing.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Bombay (Prof. C. C.), Glensings for the Carious.....	(A. D. Worthington & Co.)
Purroughs (J.), Winter Sunshine.....	(Hurd & Houghton) 1 50
Clark (Rev. R. W.), Notes on International Lessons.....	(Dodd & Mead)
Du Bois (Prof. A. J.), Graphical Statics, etc.....	(John Wiley & Sons) 5 00
Goatland: a Story of Country Life. Illustrated.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
Greene (Prof. G. W.), German Element in the War of American Independence.....	(Hurd & Houghton) 1 50
Half-Hours with the Animals. Illustrated.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
Hebrew Characteristics.....	(American Jewish Pub. Co.)
Hierzoerg (Dr. W.), Jewish Family Papers; or, Letters of a Missionary.....	(American Jewish Pub. Co.)
Hinton (R. J.), English Radical Leaders.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Jarvis (J. J.), Glimpse at the Art of Japan.....	(Hurd & Houghton) 2 50
Jones (Mrs. C. S.), and Williams (H. T.), Household Elegancies.....	(Henry T. Williams)
Kellogg (E.), Brought to the Front.....	(Lee & Shepard) 1 25
Kemple (Rev. J. E.), The St. James's Lectures.....	(Pott, Young & Co.) 3 00
Kneeland (Prof. S.), An American in Iceland.....	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 2 50
Knox (T. W.), Backsbeesh; or, Life and Adventures in the Orient.....	(A. D. Worthington & Co.)
Laurel Leaves.....	(Wm. F. Gill & Co.) 6 00
Land of the Lion. Illustrated.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
Lanier (S.), Florida: Its Scenery, Climate, and History.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Little Prattier.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
Lorne (Marquis of), Guido and Lita: Poetry.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Mason (Mary M.), Mae Madden.....	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)
Michelet (J.), The Sea.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
My Darling's Album. Illustrated.....	(T. Nelson & Sons)
Owen Gwynne's Great Work: a Story.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Peep-Show. With 330 pictures.....	(Thos. Nelson & Sons) 1 50
Picciotto (J.), Sketches of Anglo-Jewish History.....	(Trübner & Co.)
Philbrick (J. D.), American Union Speaker.....	(Thompson, Brown & Co.) 2 00
Proctor (R. A.), Science Byways.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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